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NO. XIII.

Proceptorum magna caritas sit; ne dicas nihil quidam his debere nisi mercedulam. Quædam pluris sunt quam emuntur.
SENECA.

The masters should be treated with great kindness. You should not say, after you have paid them their little reward, that you are under no farther obligation to them. There really are some things which are worth more than the price.

Idne tu mirari, si patrissit filius? PLAUTUS.
Can you be surprised that a son mimics the father?

THE difficulties of teaching are known to those only who are, or have been actively employed in the business. To become acquainted with the laws which govern the human mind, to eradicate inveterate bad habits, and instil good ones, is a task so arduous, that few are capable, and few willing, from the consideration in which their labours are held, to perform it well. But the government of children, and the cultivation of the mind, attended with numberless perplexities, are not the only circumstances that harrass the most conscientious instructor. These would be comparatively of little trouble, were it not for the outrages teachers seem to be doomed to bear, and upon whom, it seems, as though there were a general combination, to fasten the chains of ignominy and authority. It is claimed as the prerogative of opulent arrogance and dulness, to treat those of humble condition, or pecuniary inability, in a manner not calculated to display a polish of understanding or a magnanimity of conduct. It is the purse-proud man, blessed with an inordinate share of wealth, but cursed with a brainless head, and oftentimes a depraved heart, that arrogates to himself that station in society to which his virtues or abilities do not entitle him; and to which he is urged to lay bolder claims, by illiterate mediocrity, who consider opulence, virtue, and learning of no use. Opulence is indeed an adventitious cause of felicity: unstable in its nature, it is easily torn from those hands which have seldom been employed except in counting the golden store, or handling the pen to make arithmetical calculations. Wealth attaches to it a splendour which naturally attracts the veneration of the multitude; but the philanthropist considers it useful only as it relieves distress, and those of liberal minds deeming virtue and knowledge as constituting the glory of man, would spurn at it with indignation, were it to be estimated as a bribe to their virtues and acquirements. It is seldom in-

deed, that those of narrow minds, but a full purse, form right notions of men and things, and are apt in the plenitude of their self thought wisdom, to view those in an humble and honourable sphere, and who labour for the public good, as the servants of the public, and as such, to be treated with indignities which they must not retaliate. But such men do not consider that, as one of the human family, they are as much dependent as the lowest mechanic. If dependence, in its general acceptation, be the means of sinking a man in public estimation, not one, to whom dignity is appended from his responsibilities in society; from the peasant to the king, would escape censure. But happily, this is not the case. Common consent has formed a distinction. There are certain professions, and certain offices to which honour, and sometimes wealth, is attached; and to others, dishonour, without any just cause. Under these falls that of teacher, who, as brainless heads imagine, must put up with whatever treatment they may choose to impose, or penalties they may choose to inflict. But men of this profession, have feelings, as well as the monied or illiterate, and perhaps too, sensibilities, which would be roused into action at the commission of crimes, however slight in appearance. It is true, that some of this vocation, partake in some measure of the moral and intellectual character of the *opulent dunces*. If these or any other of the profession, choose to put up with indignities, they are entitled to no commiseration, and may be ranked with that herd of beings, who suffer without resentment, or without the hope of moral or mental exaltation, who offend without cause, and seek occasions to be wise, spirited and witty, at the expense of other's feelings and reputation.

But is there a teacher of an independent spirit, conscious that he is doing his duty, that will receive ill treatment, and *receive it gently*? If there is, he is not fit to instruct. No man is fit who can be brow-beaten by a stubborn child, or silly and malicious parent. Every instructor requires as much independence of spirit as the king on his throne. It is the independent character of a man as well as his abilities and moral conduct, that insures respect from children, and generally a consequent improvement. Destroy the spirit of a teacher; let him be known to his scholars as mean spirited, and children will not progress in their studies. They would no more exert themselves to learn, than they would, were they considered to be in competition with a boy in play whom they had been taught to look upon as a pauper. Let soldiers once imagine their general a coward, and not entitled to the character of a gentleman, and what would become of that respect, sub-

ordination, emulation, nay, courage, so necessary to secure victories?

It is as necessary that a teacher be considered worthy in the eyes of his pupils, as it is for a man to be esteemed so in society: it is necessary that he be a man who will not put up with insults from either parent or child.* The term coward, according to the notions of the day, almost stamps a man's character with infamy: an insult is deemed the challenge of death. But a *teacher* must bear all, and say nothing.—Shame to the man who thinks so, and shame to the man who will suffer it. Instructors

* Dr. Barrow in his excellent treatise on education observes: In enumerating what were in his judgment the requisite qualifications of an instructor of youth, Quintillian has drawn such a literary and moral character, as would indeed, do honour to any profession; but what human frailty forbids us to hope will frequently be found; yet the idea of the ancient rhetorician, however exalted, seems by no means equal to the popular expectation of the present day. If we consult the sentiments and conduct of the less intelligent and less liberal part of the community, it will appear that the master of an academy is required to possess, like the hero of a romance, not only talents and virtues, above the ordinary endowments of humanity, but such contrarieties of excellence, as seem incompatible with each other. He is required to possess spirit enough to govern the most refractory of his pupils, and meanness enough to submit to the perpetual interference of their friends; such delicacy of taste, as may enable him to instruct his scholars in all the elegancies of polite literature, and robust strength enough to bear without fatigue the most incessant exertions. He is required to possess learning sufficient to relish the eloquence of Cicero and Demosthenes; and good nature to listen without weariness to a grandmother blazoning the merits of her heir; skill adequate to the performance of his task, and patience to be instructed how to perform it. He is required to possess judgment enough to determine the most proper studies, and the most suitable destinations for his pupils; and complaisance at all times to submit his own opinion to the opinions of those, who have employed him; moral principle sufficient to ensure on all occasions the faithful discharge of his duties; and forbearance to hear those principles continually suspected, and his diligence and fidelity called in question. It is expected that he shall be daily exposed to the severest trials of his temper, but neither require nor be allowed any indulgence for its occasional excesses; and that he be able to secure all the good effects of discipline, without the use of the only means which ever yet procured them: he is expected to feel that conscious dignity, which science confers upon its professors; and yet to descend without reluctance to teach infants their alphabet; to possess generosity enough to maintain his pupils liberally without a liberal stipend; and insensibility enough to permit his demands to be taxed by those, by whom they ought to be most readily and gratefully discharged.

That many parents appear to expect this variety of talents in the teachers of their sons, the masters of Academies, know to their sorrow and their cost; but where such constellations of excellence are to be found, it is sure-

have already too long been borne down by the prescription of folly and ignorance: it is now time that they shake off that fawning dependence and moral and intellectual degradation with which they have been so often and so unjustly charged; that subjection to the control of parents and children; and consider themselves, as discharging the functions of a high and honourable office, and as such not to be insulted with impunity by the whims of the narrow minded, who have nothing of which they can boast, except a piece of ore, unworthy of a moment's thought in itself, but deriving an arbitrary value from the common consent of mankind. Men should be *men* in every situation and every condition of life:—The more instructors give up their authority, and the more they suffer themselves to be ill treated, the more will the great body of society shackle them by customs engendered by folly and propagated by error. The abuse of power is general; and power, when unrestricted, knows no bounds.

The results of not holding teachers in proper estimation are evident, and does it not show extreme imbecility of mind in those parents who wish to lower them in the opinion of their children? or consider them in that light and yet patronize them? It is strange that parents act thus! They wish to give them a good education, lofty and dignified sentiments, yet, they put them under men, whom both they and their children despise. If they wish what they say they really do, their children to be well educated, they must pursue a course of conduct different from what they do.

To secure good instructors, the public should value them more; to secure the respect of children, they should be taught that respect, which would be perpetuated from the force of first impressions; parents would not be liable to the charge to which they are at present; and neither they nor their children, would be stigmatised with such ingratitude as Pericles manifested to the philosopher Anaxagoras, who after devoting his life to the instruction of youth, perished under the most humiliating circumstances, and in the most desolate condition.

On the manner of teaching Mathematics, and appreciating in examinations, the knowledge of those who have studied them.

Continued from page 168.

The hearer and the lecturer, the reader and the
ly needless to inquire. The glasses of Herschel, in the
search, *would sweep the regions of space in vain.*"

It was a saying of the ancients, *DIIS, PARENTIBUS, ET
PRECEPTORIBUS nihil pro merito posse rependi. No ade-
quate compensation can ever be made to the gods, to
our PARENTS AND TO OUR PRECEPTORS, for the benefits
they confer upon us.* It would be a happy circumstance,
if this sentence were duly impressed on the public mind:

author, should relieve each other with mutual assistance. In every science there are things which can never be taught, and which the pupil must acquire by his personal exertions ; a familiarity with the peculiar processes of science, or the mechanical operations which it prescribes are of this description ; in arithmetic and algebra they are calculations, and in geometry, the construction of figures.

It is impossible for young persons to seize upon a general principle while their whole attention is absorbed by the mechanism of a particular calculation ; the instructor will prevent this difficulty by furnishing his pupils with an abundance of practical examples and by accustoming them to reduce them to order, which will be found to be the only method of relieving and supporting attention, since it allows the calculation to be interrupted and resumed at pleasure. Very long operations may then be undertaken and being verified by parts, the accuracy of the results may be relied on. That aversion to calculations which is frequently exhibited, springs chiefly from the uncertainty of the results, and from the fact, that for the want of some principle of arrangement, the labour cannot be suspended, when the attention is exhausted. Those who are alarmed at the extent of an operation, when they look upon the space which separates the beginning from the end, would not be deterred if they were able to divide it. In this respect, as well as in many others, an author can do little else, than give general directions and offer a few examples which the reader should consider as the models of the particular operations that he is to attempt, after having followed out in all their details, those with which his book presents him.

The preceding observations relate to the mode by which hearers or readers, may be conducted to a complete comprehension of the different propositions of either an oral or written course ; but the memory has yet a task to fulfil, of which the nature and extent remain to be determined.

When the exercise of the mind is alone considered, it is a matter of small utility to load the memory with all the materials that have furnished this exercise. If a man possess a penetrating mind and a sure and ready judgment, of what importance are the means by which he has acquired them, if the use of these means should be likely, never to recur during the remainder of his life ? The judge, for example, who is educated to arguments and to the examination of evidence, by the study of the exact sciences, may forget, without inconvenience and forever, the technical propositions of these sciences ; and the man who has accustomed himself to fencing, with the view of developing his physical powers and of giving agility and pliancy to his limbs, proceeds soon to more useful labours, and loses sight entirely of all the niceties of the art.

It is then upon those only who are to practise a

science that the obligation of fastening its details in their memory is especially imposed, but what is the extent of this obligation ? and what should be principally retained ? This is a proper subject of discussion. Let it be premised then, that there are two functions of the memory ; the power of recalling things in a body, and that of reproducing them in all their details ; the one may be called the *memory of things*, the other, *that of words*. Both of them should doubtless be cultivated with care, but the latter seems rather to be exerted in the study of languages and nomenclatures ; and the first is the only one that ought to be required from those who are engaged in the pursuit of the exact sciences. It is essential even to a limited progress in them, although their application be not contemplated, because, in a succession of closely linked propositions, the antecedents must be recalled, at least in their object, in order to show the truth of the consequents. To say that reasoning should retrace them when the remembrance of them is lost, is as much as to assert that science might have been invented entire by the first person who ever made it a subject of attention.

Memory is also of great importance in leading to discoveries, because it furnishes, at the instant when they are needed, aids which would hardly be sought for in books, and which indeed might not be found in them, on the precise point in question ; but this memory is to be cultivated only by the frequent use that may be made of the things confided to it, and not by the forced labour of continual repetitions ; it comes without being thought of. Euler, who, of all geometers, had his head the most completely filled with formulas and results, surely never subjected himself to learning, every day, a certain number of them by heart.

REFLECTIONS ON THE CHANGE OF SEASONS.

As providence has made the human soul an active being, always impatient for novelty, and struggling for something yet unenjoyed with restless desire and unwearied progression, the world seems to have been eminently adapted to this disposition of the mind, and formed to raise new expectations by constant vicissitudes, and obviate satiety by perpetual change.

Wherever we turn our eyes, we find something to revive our curiosity, and engage our attention. In the dusk of the morning we watch the rising of the sun, and see the day diversify the clouds, and open new prospects in its gradual advance. After a few hours, we see the shades lengthen, the light decline, and the sky resigned to a multitude of shining orbs different in magnitude and splendor. The earth has a new appearance, as we move upon

it; the woods offer their shades, and the fields their harvests; the hill flatters with an extensive view, and the valley invites with shelter, fragrance and flowers.

The poets have numbered, among the felicities of the golden age, an exemption from the change of seasons, and a perpetuity of spring, but I am not certain that in this state of imaginary happiness they have made sufficient provision for that insatiable demand of new gratifications, which seems particularly to characterize the nature of man. Our sense of delight is in a great measure comparative, and arises at once from the sensations which we feel, and those which we remember: Thus ease after pain for a time is pleasure, and we are very agreeably recreated, when the body, chilled with the weather, is gradually recovering its natural tenuity; but the joy ceases when we have forgot the cold, and we must fall below ease again, if we desire to rise above it, and purchase new felicity by voluntary pain. It is therefore not unlikely that however the fancy may be amused with the description of regions in which no wind is heard but the gentle zephyr, and no scenes are displayed, but valies enamelled with unsading flowers, and woods waving their perennial verdure, we should soon grow weary of uniformity, find our thoughts languish for want of other objects and employment, call on heaven for our wonted round of seasons, and think ourselves liberally recompensed for the inconveniences of summer and winter, by new perceptions of the calmness and mildness of the intermediate variations.

Every season has its particular power of striking the mind. The nakedness and asperity of wintry nature always fills the beholder with pensive and profound astonishment; as the variety of the scene is lessened, its grandeur is increased, and the mind is swelled at once by the mingled ideas of the present and the past, of the beauties which have vanished from the eyes, and the waste and desolation which are now before them.

It is observed by Milton, that he who neglects to visit the country in spring, and rejects the pleasures that are then in their first bloom and fragrance, is guilty of sullenness against nature. If we allot different duties to different seasons, he may be charged with equal disobedience to the voice of nature, who looks on the bleak hills and leafless woods, without seriousness and awe. Spring is the season of gaiety, and winter of terror; in spring the heart of tranquility dances to the melody of the groves, and the eye of benevolence sparkles at the sight of happiness and plenty: in the winter, compassion melts at universal calamity, the tear starts at the wailings of hunger, and the cries of the creation in distress.

'There is indeed in most minds very little inclina-

tion to indulge heaviness and sorrow, nor do I recommend them beyond the degree necessary to maintain in its full vigour that habitual sympathy and tenderness, which, in a world of so much misery, is necessary to the ready discharge of the most important duties. The winter therefore is generally celebrated as the proper season for domestic merriment and gaiety, and we are seldom invited by the votaries of pleasure to look abroad for any other purpose, than that we may shrink back with more satisfaction to our coverts, and when we have heard the howl of the tempest, and felt the gripe of the frost, congratulate each other with more gladness upon a close room, an easy chair, a high-piled fire, and a smoaking dinner.

There are indeed now natural incitements to jollity and conversation. Differences, we know, are never so effectually laid asleep, as by some common calamity, and an enemy unites all to whom he threatens danger. The rigour of winter brings generally to the same fire-side those, who, by the opposition of their inclinations, or the difference of their employments, moved in various directions through the other parts of the year; and when they have met, and find it their mutual interest to remain together, they endear each other by mutual compliances, and often wish for the continuance of the social season, with all its bleakness and all its severities.

To the men of study and imagination, the winter is generally the chief time of labour. Gloom and silence produce composure of mind, and concentration of ideas, and the privation of external pleasure naturally causes an effort to find entertainment within. This is the time in which those, whom literature enables to find amusements for themselves, have more than common convictions of their own happiness. When they are condemned by the elements to retirement, and debarred from most of the diversions which are called in to assist the flight of time, they can always find new subjects of inquiry, engage their passions in new pursuits, and preserve themselves from that weariness which hangs always flagging upon the vacant mind.

It cannot indeed be expected of all to be poets and philosophers, deeply versed in sciences, or much engaged in any researches into past or distant transactions; it is necessary that the greatest part of mankind should be employed in the trivial business of common life; trivial, indeed, not with respect to its influence upon our happiness, but of the abilities requisite to conduct it. These must necessarily be more dependent on accident for the means of spending agreeably those hours which their employment leaves unengaged, or which the imbecility of nature obliges them to allow to relaxation and diversion. Yet on these I would willingly impress such a sense of the value of time, as may incline

them to find out for their most careless hours some amusement of more use and dignity than the common games, which not only weary the mind without improving it, but strengthen the passions of envy and avarice, and often lead to fraud and to profusion, to corruption and to ruin. It is unworthy of a reasonable being to spend any of the little time allotted us, without some tendency, either direct or oblique, to the end of our existence. And though every moment cannot be laid out on the formal and regular improvement of our knowledge, or in the stated practice of a moral or religious duty, yet none should be so spent as to exclude wisdom or virtue, or pass without possibility of qualifying us more or less for the better employment of those which are to come.

It is scarcely possible to pass an hour in honest conversation, without being able, when we rise from it, to please ourselves with having given or received some advantages; but a man may shuffle cards, or rattle dice from noon to midnight, without tracing any new idea in his mind, or being able to recollect the day by any other token but his gain or loss, and a confused remembrance of agitated passions, and clamorous altercations.

However, as experience is always of more weight than precept, any of my readers, who are contriving how to spend the dreary months before them, may consider which of their past amusements fill them now with greatest satisfaction, and resolve to repeat those gratifications of which the pleasure is most durable.

AMERICAN ATLAS.

In our 10th No. we intended to insert a review of a new Atlas, now publishing by Tanner, Valentine, Kearny, & Co. Philadelphia; but the article has been hitherto crowded out, by press of matter. We now hasten to do all the justice in our power to one of the most useful works yet attempted in the United States.

Maps and Charts, if drawn with fidelity, contain more information in the smallest space of any species of literary production whatever; and when to accuracy of delineation, is added elegance of execution, they form pictures giving at once instruction and pleasure. We have viewed with real satisfaction, the progress for three or four years past, in the United States, of that part of the graphic art, which in a particular manner is appropriated, to the representation of the surface of the globe upon which we dwell. Many Maps and Charts of primary merit, and in every respect well executed have been produced representing all, or parts of our country, within the time we have specified. It remained a desideratum, to possess an atlas not only of the Americas but of the world, an atlas the labour of Ameri-

can artists both in delineation and engraving. That very desirable object is now in some measure realized in the work before us. If a judgment can be formed from the No. already published of this work, we are justifiable in pronouncing it an honourable specimen of the existing state of the arts and sciences in the United States.

European authors, physically removed by distance, and morally by their prejudices, have generally either disfigured or neglected their materials when treating upon America. Resident in Philadelphia, one of the first cities in this continent, and within reach of the best sources of intelligence, the authors of the atlas we are now noticing, have it in their power to determine a landmark in geography, by delineating all that is now known of the geography and topography of their country.

The Map of South America in the first No. is a production of great merit and of immediate interest. That fine, and hitherto neglected country is now rapidly developing its physical and moral resources to an astonished world. The advance of its sons to rational government is slow, but gradual and progressive. The beautiful Map included in the first No. of the New American Atlas, will enable the man of science and the politician to trace the march and mark the place of *Battle*, of armies contending for and against the emancipation of millions from slavery of every kind. It will enable the statesman to trace the limits of new empires, and the merchant new channels of commerce.

Should the future Nos. of this valuable work preserve the character of the specimen already published, we do not hesitate to declare that the work when finished will be a treasure in our public and private libraries.

Whilst on this subject, our readers will indulge a few remarks on the state of geographical science, as respects the region claimed by the United States. No country in the world of equal extent, is at this epoch so exactly delineated as the territory included in that part of the United States east of the Mississippi river as high as the mouth of the Ohio, and up that stream to the boundary of the state of Indiana; thence including that state and all the remaining states and territories north and east of the Wabash, except the western parts of Michigan territory and the northern part of the province of Maine. Good maps on a large scale, exist, of New-Hampshire, Connecticut, New-York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, North-Carolina, and Louisiana. Maps on a small scale have been published of Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Vermont, New-Jersey, Delaware, Indiana, South-Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia. Of the latter maps, those of Tennessee, and Indiana, are excellent, and of the latter there are two, one by Shelton and Kensett, and another by John Melish. A very fine manuscript map of Georgia, on a scale of eight miles to the inch has been put into the hands of the engraver in Phil-

adelphia about two years past, but is not yet published. Though much remains to be done, yet all the essential points in the geography of this great expanse are known.

Of the new states and territories, in our Northwestern, southern, Louisiana and Missouri countries, the manner of surveying our public lands, gives a decided preference over any other topographical surveys, that a region covered generally with wood, could possibly possess. Dividing the land by lines drawn along the true meridian, and at right angles to that meridian; and often into half mile squares, leaves very little omitted in the natural features of places thus intersected.

Many of the book-stores in the United States have maps for sale, but the only establishment on the continent of America, exclusively appropriated to the disposal of maps and charts is that of Mr. John Melish of Philadelphia. Mr. Melish deserves a very high rank amongst really useful men; he has entered largely into, not only the sale, but the formation and engraving of maps and charts; and his execution would do honour to London or Paris.

Mr. Fielding Lucas, of Baltimore, a few years past published an elegant atlas, but the scale is too small for universal use. The atlas now publishing by Tanner, Vallance, Kearney, & Co. preserves a due medium between the too condensed and extended forms; and as the United States are projected on a uniform scale for the first time, (except on general maps,) the eye will at a glance perceive the comparative extent of the various subdivisions.

We await the completion of this work with an interest commensurate with its importance, and consider it as one of the most valuable additions, that could be made to our native literature. The authors had access to, and have availed themselves of materials beyond the reach of authors publishing their works in Europe, and have consulted with diligence and success, the most recent and accurate documents extant, particularly respecting the Americas. We most cheerfully recommend this atlas to the public, as well worthy of extensive patronage.

PHILOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

GRAMMAR. *Continued from page 141.*

CHAP. V.

Of Adjectives.

SECT. I. *The Nature of the Adjective.*

THE impropriety of considering adjectives as intended to express our ideas of qualities, in contradistinction to our ideas of substances, has been already pointed out. The only objects known to us are qualities, and therefore this distinction has

no foundation in nature. Qualities habitually conjoined, and forming definite assemblages, comprehend the whole of our concrete ideas, called ideas of substances. We have words to represent these assemblages, and words to represent single qualities. But this does not constitute the distinction betwixt substantives and adjectives. Both kinds of ideas are indiscriminately expressed by these two parts of speech. The adjective, like the substantive or noun, is the name of an object. The circumstance which constitutes its peculiarity is, that it also contains an intimation of the subordination of the idea expressed by a noun in the same sentence. It has in fact the same application with the genitive case of the noun. Sometimes these two parts of speech may be shown to be synonymous. The words "Peter's," "Solomon's," "Cicero's," are by some called genitive cases, by others adjectives of possession. The words "Aristotelian" and "Ciceronian" are reckoned adjectives by all, and also such words as "Roman" and "Grecian." All of these equally contain the name of a person or country, with an intimation that it is to be connected with some other idea expressed by a noun in the sentence. We shall soon see the similarity of use betwixt these adjectives and such as discover less composition in their structure. We shall also see the cause of their apparent difference.

Some have asserted that the adjective by itself expresses no idea. This opinion has arisen from the circumstance, that it supposes some other idea expressed by a different word. But this is in reality an addition to its meaning. Every idea expressed by a substantive may also be expressed by an adjective, and vice versa. The idea expressed by "man" is also expressed by "manly;" and the idea expressed by the adjective "good" is also expressed by the substantive "goodness."

Perhaps it will be alleged that, when we use the adjective, we do not give a full representation of an object, but merely refer to it by mentioning a quality founded on some connection with it; that the words "Roman," "English," "Ciceronian," do not imply the full meaning of "Rome," "England," and "Cicero." In answer to this we must observe, that the greater part of words in a sentence are merely introduced for reference. Sometimes, where many words are used, and many objects of thought mentioned, those which are mentioned on their own account are comparatively few, the greater part of the words, including the nouns employed, being merely introduced for the sake of reference. "A Roman senator," and "a senator of Rome," mean exactly the same thing; therefore the ideas contained in the word "Rome" are also contained in the word "Roman."

Those whose reflections are in the habit of sug-

ggesting more subtle arguments may object, that the word "Rome" is a proper name, while "Roman" expresses a general quality. This, however, is the same objection in a different form. A part of the word "Roman" is a proper name. The generality of such adjectives arises from the variety of occasions on which proper names may be used. Their application in connection with other words thus becomes general, and the same thing may be said of any form of a noun that implies definite connection with other words. The adjectives "Roman," "Grecian," "French," "English," "Alexandrian," "Ciceronian," "Foxite," "Pittite," contain the names of individuals, but they become general from being applicable to many objects. A relationship to an individual becomes a genericquality.

There are, however, adjectives which express the possession of general qualities founded on no reference to a particular individual. These adjectives have less appearance of composition than those now mentioned, and are always shorter than the substantive nouns used to represent the qualities as separate objects. "Good," "bad," "hard," "soft," "light," "heavy," are shorter words than "goodness," "badness," "hardness," "softness," "lightness," and "heaviness." It is from the aspect of words of this sort that grammarians have concluded that the adjective does not express a complete idea. They are never derived from the general name of the quality. It has been imagined that the ideas which such adjectives express are *essentially* general, that they have no corresponding objects possessed of an individual existence, and that, when substantive nouns, such as "goodness" and "badness," are derived from them, a forced effort is made to treat qualities in language as if they were substances. The just conclusion was not drawn, that substantives and adjectives, as mutually distinguished, are forms fitted for certain purposes in language, and not signs founded in any differences in the nature of the external objects signified.

The reason of the comparative brevity of words signifying general qualities, when in the form of adjectives, has been already hinted at. Individual instances of these qualities have no separate interest attached to them, and therefore the words expressing them contain an intimation of their annexation to some group. The names of groups, even though generic, are in the first instance so contrived as to be fitted to become the names of leading subjects of discourse; and ever after merely require a proper introduction to render them distinctive signs for individuals. It is at a more advanced period of human thought that single qualities become separate objects of attention, and then it is natural to create names for them by the composition of words previously in use.

The adjective, like the genitive case of the noun, is a word subordinate to a noun by which it is introduced. Sometimes it is employed to remind us of one of the ideas contained in the noun, as when a poet speaks of "fleecy clouds," "the azure sky," "and verdant foliage;" or when a historian, under impressions of indignation at any series of outrageous conduct, uses such expressions as "the infamous Robespierre."

The most usual effect of adjectives is, to reduce within a more limited range the application of a general term, by the addition of a circumstance which belongs only to a limited part of the genus which that term expresses. "A man" means one individual belonging to a certain class of beings. The words, "a good man," represent one belonging to a limited part of that class. An additional circumstance, attached by means of another adjective, would limit the meaning still more; and an accumulation of adjectives of this sort is capable of affording a combination of sufficiently limited occurrence for any purpose of distinctive description.

The subordination of the idea contained in the adjective to the noun with which it is coupled is in some instances less strict than in others. On some occasions, the ideas expressed by these two parts of speech might exchange places, without any material alteration in the meaning of the compound designation thus formed. "A written libel" is equivalent to "a libellous writing; " a false assertion," to "an asserted falsehood." Although the purposes of connection in discourse require one of the ideas thus nearly equal in importance to be expressed by a substantive noun, the choice is left to the option of taste and convenience. In other instances in which they may be made to shift places, when the ideas they express are the subject of a sentence, a corresponding change is required in the predicate, in order that the identity of the meaning may be preserved. The sentence, "a good man is a happy man," may be converted into "human goodness is conducive to human happiness."

It sometimes happens that the adjective expresses the idea which is intended to be the principal, and to which that expressed by a substantive noun is subordinate; as in the Latin phrase *ab urbe condita ad (urbem) liberalam*. In the translation of such phrases, the idea that is primary is expressed by a substantive noun, and the subordinate one by an adjective. The primary ideas introduced in this phrase, by the prepositions *ab* and *ad*, are the "building" and the "deliverance," hence it is translated, "from the building to the deliverance of the city." Such idioms are to be considered as arbitrary inversions of the parts of speech, and do not invalidate the original subserviency of the adjective to the substantive noun, as well as of the

genitive case to the noun by which it is introduced.

The adjective is very often employed as the predicate of a sentence. It then conveys, by the help of the substantive verb or copula, information of a connection betwixt the idea conveyed by it and the leading subject expressed by the nominative prefixed to this verb. As in the sentences, "Cicero was eloquent," and "Solon was wise."

SECT. IV. *The Etymology of Adjectives.*

AMIDST the obscurity in which etymology is involved, it would be difficult to trace all the adjectives to other parts of speech, and thus prove that none of them are original. But many of them which might be supposed from their appearance to be simple have been shown to be derived from verbs, and these verbs are expressive of motion.

Sometimes the adjectives thus derived signify qualities *produced* by particular motions. The adjective "left," in contradistinction to right, is from the verb *to leave*. The left hand is that which we leave or decline to use. "Tight" is *tied*; "full" is *filled*; "load" is from *low'd*.

Sometimes the adjectives thus formed merely contain an *allusion* to the motions from which they are derived, as "odd" from *ow'd*; "straight" and "strict" from *stringere* to pull; "blind" from the old verb to "blin," or stop; "bold" from the verb *to build* or establish. "Brown" is from the verb *to bren* or *burn*. "Lewd" is the participle of the verb *to lew* or allure. "Profligate," an adjective used to depict a character destitute of all rectitude of principle, is derived from *profligare* to defeat.

Adjectives expressive of single qualities are sometimes derived from the names of habitual assemblages in which such qualities are conspicuous. The colour "yellow" is in Latin *flammeus* or *luteus*, because it is the colour of flame or of clay. The English word "yellow" is derived from the Saxon verb *geālgen* to burn or flame. *Viridis* in Latin, is from *virere*, to vegetate; and "green" in English from *grenian*, to grow.

From the analogies in etymology disclosed by the researches of Mr. Tooke, it would appear that verbs expressive of human motion have been the roots from which almost all adjectives, as well as substantives, have been derived. This fact tends to illustrate the views given at the beginning of this article, on the principles which regulate the progress of the human mind in the formation of language.

Some adjectives contain an intentional allusion to the nouns and verbs from which they are derived, and something more is recognized in them than the current signs for annexed qualities. Such are the adjectives, "manly, gentlemanlike, princely, national, provincial, worldly, earthly;" also "earthly,

hilly, stony." The substantives are here fully expressed, and the terminating syllable denoting annexation is capable of being separated. Sometimes this last is merely a general sign of connection; at other times it signifies something more specific, and then the adjective is to be considered as formed by the combination of another adjective with a noun. Thus, "faithful" does not mean simply "connected with faith," but "full of faith," and, if analyzed into the genitive case, it would not be represented by the phrase "of faith," but "of fulness of faith." A "gentleman-like youth" is not "a youth of, or connected with, gentleman," but "of the resemblance, or likeness, of a gentleman." Where several synonymous adjective terminations exist, though all general in original meaning, different specific applications may be afterwards appropriated to them. Thus "earth-en" means made of earth, "earth-y," abounding with earth, "earth-ly" connected with the earth. In some examples we find both parts of the compound word restricted in their meaning. If *ly* means "like," the etymological meaning of the word "earthly" must be "similar to earth;" yet the word is employed solely to signify "connected with the system of our earth," in contradistinction to the invisible world.

There seems to be a constant tendency amidst the fluctuation of language to coin new adjectives, by derivation from substantive nouns, for the sake of producing greater liveliness of expression. When such a word as "manly" is first used for describing an individual, the bearer more readily imagines to himself a "man," with all his suitable qualifications for the illustration of the quality named, than when such epithets as "bold" or "firm" are employed.

Some adjectives derived from verbs contain an equally palpable allusion to the parent words as those do which are derived from nouns, and thus bring more fully into view the motions or actions which they denote. The most remarkable adjectives of this sort are also called participles. They resemble other adjectives in every feature which has yet been mentioned; but many of them imply an additional characteristic, which will come into view when we treat of the verb. The participle expresses the meaning of the verb, together with its subordination to the idea expressed by a substantive noun. The words, "pining," "thriving," "dazzling," are as completely adjectives in meaning and use, as "weak," "strong," and bright. Sometimes it contains the addition of a particular modification of connection. There is generally a difference betwixt the participle in *ans* or *ens* and that in *us* in Latin, and betwixt the participle in *ing* and that in *ed* in English.

The adjectives of some languages are subjected

to variations corresponding with the cases, numbers, and genders of the substantive nouns to which they are attached. These are terminations. They are extraneous with regard to the meaning of the adjective, and are merely convenient marks for designating, in complicated sentences, the noun with which each adjective corresponds. They served, in the Greek and Latin languages, to obviate that ambiguity which must have been the consequence of the inversions of the order of words which the writers of these languages, especially the poets, perpetually practised. This circumstance, though merely accidental, has probably formed the ground on which the grammarians have proceeded in calling the adjective a sort of noun. The declensions have given it a similarity of aspect to the substantive noun. The metaphysical reason for adhering to this nomenclature assigned by Mr. Tooke, that both equally contain the name of an object, seems not to have occurred, and labours under the disadvantage of applying also to other parts of speech.

ARITHMETICAL AND MATHEMATICAL DEPARTMENT.

OF DIVISION.

THE product of two numbers being formed of one of these numbers repeated as many times as there are units in the other, we may return from any product whatever to one of its factors, by seeking how many times this product contains its other factor; in this search subtraction alone is sufficient: Thus, if it were required to ascertain how many times 64 contains 16, it would be necessary only to subtract 16 from 64 as many times as it could be done; and, since there could be no remainder after four subtractions, it might be justly concluded from it, that the number 16 is contained 4 times in 64. This method of decomposing one number by another is called *Division*, because it serves to divide or break a given number into equal parts, of which the number or value is given. If it were required, for example, to divide 64 into 4 equal parts: in order to find the value of these parts, it would be necessary to seek the number which is contained 64 times in 4, and consequently, to consider 64 as a product having for its factors 4, and one of the parts sought, which here is 16. But, if it were required to ascertain of how many parts equal to 16 the number 64 is composed, it would be necessary, in order to discover the number of these parts, to seek how many times 64 contains 16, and consequently 64 would be considered as a product, one of the factors of which would be 16, and the other, the number sought, which here is 4.

To whichever of these purposes, then, the operation is to be applied, *Division consists in finding one of the factors of a given product, when the other factor is known.*

The number to be divided is called the *dividend*; the known factor by which the division is to be performed is called the *divisor*; the unknown factor which is found by the division, is called the *quotient*, and shews how many times the divisor is contained in the dividend.

It follows from what has just been said, that *the divisor multiplied by the quotient must reproduce the dividend.*

When the dividend contains the divisor a great number of times, it is almost impracticable to employ a repeated subtraction in order to arrive at the quotient; it then becomes necessary to recur to an abbreviation analogous to that which has been given for multiplication. If the dividend be not 10 times greater than the divisor, which may be seen by a single inspection of these numbers, and if the divisor have but a single figure, the quotient may be found in the table of Pythagoras, since that table includes the products of all those factors that are expressed by a single figure. If it were required, for instance, to ascertain how many times 56 contains 8, it would be necessary to look along down the eighth column to the column in which 56 is found; the figure 7 placed at the head of this column, shews the second factor of the number 56, or how many times this number contains 8.

It may be seen in the same table, that there are numbers which cannot be exactly divided by any others. For instance, as the seventh line which contains all the multiples of 7 does not contain the number 40, it follows that this number is not divisible by 7; but since it is comprised between 35 and 42, it appears that the greatest multiple of 7 which it can contain is 35, the factors of which are 5 and 7. By these elements together with certain considerations which are next to be explained any division whatever may be effected. Suppose it to be required, for instance, to divide 1656 by 3; the question may be changed into this: *To find a number such that by multiplying its units, tens, hundreds &c. by 3, the units, tens, hundreds &c. of the dividend 1656 may be obtained for the product.*

It is plain that this number can have no units of a higher rank than thousands, for if it had only tens of thousands there would be tens of thousands in the product, which is not the case; neither can it have units of a rank as high as thousands, for if it had only one thousand, the product would contain at least 3 thousands, and this is not the case with either. It appears then that the thousand found in the dividend is the number carried, when the hundreds of the quotient are multiplied by the number 3.

This being premised, the figure of the hundred's place of the quotient should be such, that in multi-

plying the numbers which it expresses by 3, the product 16 or the multiple of 3, which is nearest to 16, may be the result. This restriction is necessary on account of the carried figures which may have been furnished by the multiplication of the other figures of the quotient by the divisor, and which must have been finally added to the product of the hundreds. The number that satisfies this condition is 5; but 5 hundreds multiplied by 3 give only 15 hundreds, and the dividend 1656 contains 16: the difference one hundred is occasioned by the carried figures resulting from the multiplication of the other figures of the quotient by the divisor. If, however, the partial product 15 hundreds, or 1500 be subtracted from the entire product 1656, the remainder 156 will contain the product of the units and tens of the quotient by the divisor; and the whole will reduce itself to finding a number which when multiplied by 3 will give 156, a question precisely similar to that which presented itself at first; so, when the first figure of the quotient in this latter question is found in the same manner as in the former, the number which it expresses is to be multiplied by the divisor; and after the subtraction of this partial product from the entire product, a new dividend will result which is to be wrought upon in the same manner as the preceding, and so on in succession until the original dividend shall be exhausted.

The operation just described is disposed as it is represented below.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Divisor.} \quad \text{Dividend.} \quad \text{Quotient.} \\
 3) 1 6 5 6 (5 5 2 \\
 \underline{1} \quad \underline{5} \\
 \underline{1} \quad \underline{5} \\
 \underline{0} \quad \underline{6} \\
 \quad \quad \underline{6} \\
 \quad \quad \underline{0}
 \end{array}$$

The places of the dividend, divisor and quotient are separated by dashes: this being done, from the left of the dividend is taken the part 16 capable of containing the divisor 3, and on dividing it by this number, five results from the first figure on the left of the quotient; after having formed the product of the divisor by the number which has just been found and subtracting it from the partial dividend 16, the remainder 1 is written below, and the 5 tens of the dividend are brought down by the side of it. Considering this latter number as a second partial dividend, it is divided by the divisor 3, and 5 is obtained from the second figure of the quotient; the product of this number by the divisor is formed and subtracted from the partial dividend, and an 0 is left for the remainder. The last figure 6 of the dividend is then brought down; this third partial dividend is

divided by the divisor 3, and 2 is obtained for the last figure of the quotient.

NEW-YORK TEACHERS' SOCIETY.

At the annual election for officers, the following gentlemen were chosen for the year 1818.

ALBERT PICKET, PRESIDENT.

JARED SLOCOMB, VICE PRESIDENT.

WILLIAM FORREST, TREASURER.

RICHARD WIGGINS, SECRETARY.

JOHN W. PICKET, } STANDING COMMITTEE.
J. HOXIE, }

JOHN W. PICKET, } CORRESPONDING
AARON M. MERCHANT, } SECRETARIES.

New-York, Sept 12, 1818.

On motion, resolved that a committee be appointed to draw up a report, detailing the objects of the Teachers' Society.

Resolved, that Albert Picket, President, and T. T. Payne, Esq. be that committee, and that their report be published.

R. Wiggins, Secretary.

REPORT.

Your Committee who were charged with the duty of explaining the objects of this association, respectfully report:

That the purposes which would naturally enter into the constitution of a Society, having for its basis the advancement of education, are so numerous and so important, that it would be improper for them, at this stage of its existence, to involve themselves in the multiplicity and difficulty of their details; they therefore hope that their duty will be considered as discharged, when they shall have presented to the view of the Society, the prominent features of its plan as a body, and the general motives by which its members must be presumed to be actuated. Before entering upon this explanation, it will not be impertinent to suggest, that the improvements in instruction which every day presents, have created a necessity for an association of professional men, by whom these improvements may be tested, embodied, and carried out into their practical applications. The perpetual progress of science also, by adding to the objects of elementary instruction, requires a corresponding simplicity in the methods of communicating it, and calls for a combination of all the knowledge, ingenuity and efforts of those who have made the business of education the occupation of their lives. The aids that may be afforded in this pursuit to native invention and experience, are great and of easy acquisition: they are either such as develop principles in a simple and unbroken order, and accompany them with lucid demonstration, or such as follow out these principles to practical and useful results, and apply to them those mechanical facilities which fit them for the business of a school.

In the latter of these advantages the English excel; in the former, the systems of the French and the Germans are unquestionably superior. One of the earliest attempts, then, of this association, will be to embody into a system the excellencies of each, and to add to them whatever the intelligence and the observation of the American instructors may furnish.

In making this allusion to the formation of a system, your Committee would not be understood to mean, that the members of the Society are to render themselves responsible to the pursuit of a concerted plan, and to receive the *shackles* of a method from the opinion of the majority.

Nothing can be wider from the aim of an association which looks forward to the character to which we hope to entitle ourselves. The objects will simply be, by the aid of foreign correspondence, and communications with our sister states, to collect into a focus whatever information can be procured, and whatever improvements have been proposed on professional subjects: to offer them to the minds of the individual members of the Society; and after having passed through the prisms of their particular judgments, to let them be divided and appropriated as circumstances and disposition may determine. As **THE INTOLERANCE OF SECT HAS BEEN THE FOE OF RELIGION, SO THE BIGOTRY OF SYSTEM WOULD PROVE THE BANE OF EDUCATION.**

An object of primary importance in our plan, will be to promote the success, and diminish the fatigues of instruction by encouraging as far as possible, a division of labour in our profession. An attempt will be made to give some gradation to our schools, with respect to the subjects of education they may embrace. In many of our institutions this has been partially accomplished by dividing the duties among associated instructors. This division has, as we believe, been attended with beneficial results, wherever it has been attempted; and, indeed, the objects of elementary instruction multiply so fast upon our hands, that an expedient of this kind becomes not only useful, but essential; and it does not terminate in the comfort of the instructor, but produces incalculable benefits to society at large.

But the distribution of duties in the interior of schools is not all that we hope to effect. To create a succession of separate schools, is an object of no less importance. The establishment of a HIGH SCHOOL, which should receive, after a preparatory examination, such of the pupils of our elementary schools as might be intended for a collegiate course, will claim the serious attention of our society. The want of an intermediate institution of this nature, has been experienced and confessed, and even attempted to be remedied by some of the strongest influence and highest talents of the community in which we live; but, whether the circumstances under which this attempt was made, were unpropri-

tious, or the systems of *elementary education* were not sufficiently matured for it, or from any other causes for which we cannot account, it did not meet with the success which it merited. The importance of such an institution, however, is unquestionable; the necessity of it is still felt; the aspect of things seems favourable to its commencement, and, the fact, that a professional gentleman of acknowledged competency and high reputation, who has but lately retired from a life of successful instruction, is ready to step forward in the most active and disinterested manner as its conductor, can leave no doubt respecting the ability with which it will be directed. The aid which the individual members of this association may furnish, and the support which may be confidently expected from that community for whose benefit it is intended, seem to be all that can be considered necessary to ensure its success.

The act of our incorporation, as well as the duties which we owe to that class of society to which we belong, have made **BENEVOLENCE** one of the purposes of this association. The precarious nature of our business; the possibility of its being frequently sacrificed by the temporary sickness or absence of its professors, or by other causes of a trivial description, render this object peculiarly prominent among those that should be contemplated by a society of this nature. Instances of men who have passed the best part of their lives in the business of instruction, who have worn out their whole strength in the labours which it imposes, and who have been left to **DRAG OUT THEIR OLD AGE IN INDIGENCE**, are not rare among us. It is related of Anaxagoras, after he had devoted his existence to the discovery and dissemination of truth, and had numbered among his pupils the most distinguished men of the day, among whom was the powerful Pericles, that he was left to terminate his life by literal starvation. Pericles, feeling at that time, the necessity of his counsels, was induced to inquire for him, and discovered him in the most emaciated and desolate condition. He conjured him to live, if not for his own sake, at least because he and his country had need of him. The strength of the old man just enabled him to admonish his pupil, that it was the duty of "those who needed a lamp, to take care that it should never be destitute of oil." Pericles is not singular in his liability to the charge of such ingratitude, nor is his the only age in which the **LAMPS OF SCIENCE** have expired for want of the means of nourishing their flame.

The last of the general purposes which your Committee have to suggest to your notice, is one in which every instructor has felt an individual interest, and which has probably operated among the strongest of the motives to our social compact. It is, that we may vindicate to ourselves the name and the character of a liberal profession. It cannot have escaped the notice, of any observer of life; it certainly has not escaped the experience of any professional instructor, that

the consideration in which his labours are generally held, is far below their intrinsic dignity, and the station they have a right to claim from their usefulness to society. This may result from many causes which they cannot, and from some which they can remove. We have reason to hope much from the integrity, and unanimity of efforts which this association is calculated to effect; from the improvement of character that the professional intelligence which it is intended to disseminate must produce; from the increased attention that prevails in our community, to the subject of elementary education; and from the liberal and hearty acquiescence in our views, which has been already shown by individuals eminent for their public spirit, as well as for their stations in society. These, as your committee would represent, are grounds enough for a rational expectation, that the time is not far distant, when the instructors of youth shall be welcomed as brethren by the members of the liberal professions. And why should they not? Setting aside all the examples that antiquity and the history of European literature supply, we find, even in our own country, that many of the very men who have occupied the teacher's desk, have been and are the oracles of our laws, the sages of our senates, and the leaders of our armies. There is nothing, then, in the nature of the duties of an instructor, which can disqualify him for occupying an equal rank with men of the other liberal professions. The removal of such obstacles to this end, as may be within our own controul, will, therefore, hold a conspicuous place among the objects of this association.

There are many other purposes of minor importance which time will develope, and which your committee do not consider to be the province of a preliminary report to embrace: They therefore, leave the subject in the hands of the society, confident that a zealous co-operation of its members in their common cause, will produce the most valuable results to themselves as individuals, and to the members of the community in which their duties are to be performed.

ALBERT PICKET,
T. T. PAYNE.

For the Academician.

On Tuesday the 4th of August, the annual commencement of Columbia College took place and was conducted with great solemnity.

The procession moved from the College Green, at nine in the morning and passed through Park Place, along Broadway to Trinity church in the following order,

The Janitor,
Students of Arts,
Candidates for the degree of bachelor of arts,

Former Graduates,
College of Physicians and Surgeons.

BAND OF MUSICIANS.

Professors of the College,

President of the College,

Trustees of Do.

Corporation of the City,

Members of the legislature,

Judges of the Supreme Court,

The Rev. the Clergy,

Strangers of distinction,

Officers of the Army and Navy,

Members of Congress.

When the procession entered the church, the exercises of the day commenced with solemn prayer by the President, after which the members of the Senior Class delivered their orations, in the following order.

IN THE MORNING.*

1st. The *Salutatory Address* in Latin was delivered by Henry James Anderson of New-York, with an oration "De Romanorum ingenio militari, i.e. On the military genius of the Romans."

2nd. An oration "On the utility of public commencements," by Clarence D. Sackett of King's County.

3d. An oration "on the Indian character" by John H. Lloyd of New-York.

4th. An oration "on the revolution of empires" by George D. Post of New-York.

5th. An oration "on the remembrance of past pleasures" by Gerard W. Morris of Westchester county.

6th. An oration "on the prospect before us" by Alexander B. M'Leod of the City of New-York.

7th. An oration "on intellectual refinement" by John O'Blenis of New-York.

8th. An oration "on national felicity" by Abraham D. Wilson of New-York.

9th. An oration "on the cultivation of the early ages of mankind" by William Stayley of New-York.

10th. An oration "on national advantages derived from the laudable exertions of individuals," by Frederick Fairlie of New-York.

IN THE AFTERNOON.

1st. The Salutatory address, with an oration "on professional education, as relative to Columbia College" by William Beach Lawrence of New-York.

2nd. An oration "on the mutability of human affairs" by Peter Forrester of New-York.

3d. An oration "on professional education" by James Lenox of New-York.

* The above was handed us some time since, but press of matter has heretofore excluded it. We have already published the names of the graduates, but as this communication contains a fuller account than we gave, we claim the indulgence of our readers for inserting them again.

4th. An oration "on the passions" by Henry Hone of New-York.

5th. An oration "on scientific improvement" by Richard Frederick Kemble of New-York.

6th. An oration "on the study of history" by Daniel Bonnett of New-York.

7th. An oration "on the progress of American literature" by Robert Gracie of New-York.

The degree of batchelor of arts was then conferred on the following young gentlemen, alumni of the college, viz. Henry James Anderson, William Beach Lawrence, Peter Forrester, Alexander B. M'Leod, Richard Frederick Kemble, Gerard W. Morris, Clarence D. Sacket, George D. Post, James Lenox, Abraham D. Wilson, Daniel Bonnett, Henry Hone, Richard Varick Dey, John H. Lloyd, John O'Bleenis, Frederick Fairlie, Robert Gracie and William Stayley.

The following gentlemen were admitted to the degree of Master of Arts, viz. the Rev. John M'Vickar, professor of rhetoric, belles lettres, &c, in Columbia College, the Rev. Samuel Nichols, John B. Beck, M. D. Jacob A. Robertson, Thomas C. Murray, William S. Heyer, John L. Mason, Henry A. Van Amringe, Philip H. Lawrence and Robert C. Sands.

The degree of Doctor in divinity was then conferred on the Rev Andrew Thompson of Edinburgh, rector of St. George's Church, Newtown, and of Doctor of Laws on Robert Adrain A. M. professor of mathematics and natural philosophy in this college, and on the honourable Joseph Hopkinson of Philadelphia.

Honourable testimonials, which had been adjudged, at the late concluding examination were then announced by the President in behalf of the following young gentlemen, Henry James Anderson, William Beach Lawrence, Peter Forrester and Alexander B. M'Leod, of the Senior Class.

To Peter Dykers, William Johnson and James Roosevelt of the Junior Class.

To William Mitchell, John R. Townsend and John Bleeker of the Sophomore Class.

And to William Inglis, Henry Post and William D. Craft, of the Freshman Class.

The Valedictory address, with an oration "on the Swiss character and the revolution of Switzerland," by Richard Varick Dey of New-York completed the exercises of the students, which were occasionally interspersed with music, judiciously selected to suit the subjects on which they severally spoke. The business of the day was concluded with prayer by the president.

Notwithstanding that the church was exceedingly crowded, the utmost decorum was observed, if we except the reiterated bursts of applause, which were bestowed on the different speakers, and which, perhaps, did not altogether comport with the solemnity of the place, nor the dignity of the occasion; but

when we consider the masterly manner, in which all the speakers acquitted themselves, the noble sentiments of morality, virtue and patriotism, which they expressed, in chaste and elegant language, accompanied with suitable gestures, an admiring and delighted audience could not well be restrained from expressing their approbation.

All, who are acquainted with this venerable seat of learning, must rejoice to see, that she maintains her uniformly majestic course, and that she gives to our country, each successive year, those, who have laid within her walls, the best foundation for patriotism and renown.

When all acquitted themselves well, it might appear improper to bestow an encomium upon individuals; but we may be permitted to mention, that those to whom the honourary orations had been assigned, seemed, in the highest degree, to deserve praise. Henry James Anderson's salutatory address was delivered with energy, and he displayed an excellence, which we have seldom witnessed in a gentleman so young. We, likewise, have it from the best authority, that this oration which was in the Latin language, was superiour, in point of classical elegance to any, which had preceded it in this celebrated seminary; and it ought not to be omitted, that Mr. Anderson, who spoke this oration, not only received an honourable testimonial of his good conduct and progress in literature, during the last year, but that, in every year, from his entrance into college, till he left it, he received a similar testimonial.

William Beach Lawrence, who spoke the English Salutatory, had chosen a very happy theme, by which he avoided the difficulties peculiar to the delivery of such orations. He acquitted himself in such a manner as to gain universal applause.

The Valedictory was delivered with spirit by Richard Varick Dey.

On the whole, it may be safely asserted, that no commencement, which has taken place since the college was re-established at the close of our revolutionary war, has reflected more honour on the president, professors and students, than the one which we had lately the pleasure of attending.

It may be farther added, that this institution is rising in repute, from year to year. The trustees have been peculiarly fortunate in the appointment of gentlemen as instructors, who are not only celebrated for their literary talents, but also for their religious character and unceasing industry in their respective duties. It cannot, therefore, be doubted, that it will flourish, and produce, in the course of time, many students, who will be an honour to themselves, an honour to their preceptors, and an honour to that country, which has given them birth.

The Reverend Dr. Harris whose literary abilities, as well as his benign, paternal and affectionate deportment towards the students cannot be surpassed, is President. The truly respectable Peter Wilson,

L. L. D. who has, for more than fifty years, been a celebrated teacher, is professor of languages. Robert Adrain, A. M. on whom the degree of L. L. D. was most properly conferred, at the present commencement, and who, it is probable, is not excelled in his professional character, by any in the United States, is professor of mathematics and natural philosophy. The Reverend Mr. John M'Vickar, who is professor of rhetoric, belles lettres and moral philosophy, is a gentleman of a highly cultivated mind, splendid talents and indefatigable industry, and Mr. Nathaniel F. Moore, to whom the care of the Freshman class is, in a great measure committed, and whose literary abilities are well known, will not be inferior to any of his associates in promoting the great, the important cause, in which they are all engaged.

The number of students, previous to the commencement was about one hundred, and the probability, nay, the certainty is, that after the termination of the present vacation, they will be greatly increased.

The college is now undergoing a complete and thorough repair, and new buildings are, likewise, erecting. For the use of the president, professors and students, there is a library consisting of several thousand rare and valuable books, and the trustees have it greatly at heart, that this library, extensive as it now is, should be annually increased. But to defray the expenses necessary for this purpose, and for many other important objects, which they have in contemplation, funds will be wanting. We cannot however, doubt, even for a moment, that the legislature of the state of New-York, which is possessed, at least, of as ample resources as any in the union, to promote every institution, which is intended for the interest of the community, will suffer this highly respectable seminary to languish for such pecuniary aid, as may be wanted by the trustees for the important improvements, in which they are now engaged. The state of New-York has always been liberal, and it would be almost criminal to suppose, that on an occasion, like the present, they would become parsimonious.

The legislature, within the last four or five years, have granted to Union College the sum of six hundred thousand dollars, and to Hamilton College sixty thousand dollars, while not one cent has been bestowed on Columbia College, which had existed for many years previous to the revolution, and has produced some of the most eminent divines, statesmen and physicians, that have appeared in our country. It is ascertained, that the repairs and new buildings, which are now in operation for this institution, will cost no less than seventy thousand dollars. It may, likewise, be supposed, that some additional professorships should be established. The present trustees are gentlemen of learning, experience and discretion, and there can be no doubt, that whatever funds may be put into their hands, will be appropri-

ated to such purposes as will be most conducive to the interest and reputation of this seminary.

Before we conclude, we deem it proper for the information of those at a distance to transcribe the statutes of this college respecting admission, and the course of study, as lately adopted by the board of trustees, and which is now strictly adhered to by the faculty.

Of Admission.—1. No student shall be admitted into the lowest class unless he be accurately acquainted with the grammar, including prosody, of both the Greek and Latin tongues; unless he be master of Cæsar's Commentaries—Of the Orations of Cicero contained in the volume *in usum Delphini*—of Virgil's *Aeneid*—of the Greek Testament—of Dalzel's *Collectanea Minora*—of the first two books of Xenophon's *Cyropaedia*—and the first two books of Homer's *Iliad*. He shall also be able to translate English into Grammatical Latin, and shall be well versed in Arithmetic. The classical examination to be *ad aperturam libri*.

OF THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The Course of study in the different classes, shall be as follows, viz :

FIRST YEAR—OR FRESHMAN CLASS.

Professor of Languages.—Cicero's Letters to Atticus—Sallust, entire—Horace's Satires—Dalzel's *Collectanea Majora*—Xenophon's *Memorabilia*—Kent's Lucian—Double translation—Latin verse—Roman Antiquities.

Rhetoric & Belles Lettres.—English Grammar and Reading—English Composition—Declamations in English.

Mathematics, &c.—Euclid's Elements—Geography.

SECOND YEAR—OR SOPHOMORE CLASS.

Professor of Languages.—Virgil's *Georgics*—Livy—Horace's Odes and Epistles—Demosthenes—Homer—Herodotus—Greek and Roman Antiquities—Double translation—Latin composition in prose and verse.

Rhetoric and Belles Lettres.—Elements of Rhetoric—English Composition—Declamations in English and Latin.

Mathematics, &c.—Plane Trigonometry and its applications—Algebra—Geography.

THIRD YEAR—OR JUNIOR CLASS.

Professor of Languages.—Cicero de Oratore entire—Terence—Quintilian—Horace the second time—Longinus entire—Sophocles—Greek and Roman Antiquities—Double translation—Latin and Greek composition in prose and verse.

Rhetoric and Belles Lettres.—English composition—Criticism—Illustrations from the best poets and prose writers—Declamations; the pieces to be of the student's own composing—History and Chronology.

Mathematics, &c.—Spherical Trigonometry—Conic Sections—Natural Philosophy—Geography.

Moral Philosophy.—Elements of Ethics.

FOURTH YEAR—OR SENIOR CLASS.

Languages.—The classical part of the course for this year to be conducted by the Professor of Languages, in such manner as he shall judge proper.

Mathematics, &c—Fluxions—Natural Philosophy—Astronomy.

Rhetoric and Belles Lettres.—English composition—Criticisms of approved writers—Universal Grammar—Declamations—History and Chronology.

Moral Philosophy.—Analysis of Intellectual powers—Principles of Reasoning—Law of Nature and Nations.

Whoever will compare the above course of education with that pursued in other colleges or universities in the United States, must be satisfied, that the system adopted by the trustees of Columbia College, is not inferior to any in usefulness and extension.

There is, therefore, every reason to believe, that, under existing circumstances and the further liberality of an enlightened legislature, Columbia College will not only maintain its present reputation, but that it will, before many years, acquire a celebrity equal to that of the most respectable seminaries in Europe.

AMICUS DOCTRINÆ.

August 8, 1818.

The following was communicated to us by Samuel Bacon, Esq. who, a few years ago, had it in contemplation to publish a work, embracing in part the objects of ours. But from causes mentioned in his letter, it was unavoidably deferred. Hearing that we were engaged in a similar publication, he forwarded the prospectus of his own plan for insertion which we cheerfully give. His observations accord with our own on the necessity and usefulness of a journal of this nature.

YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, Sept. 17, 1818.

Gentlemen,

I this morning laid my hands on "THE AMERICAN CENTINEL," a valuable paper printed in Philadelphia, in which I found an article giving an interesting account of the Institution over which you preside, and the periodical work, called the *Academician*. Having for twelve years of my life, been a teacher, and having like yourselves successfully introduced many improvements in the business of instruction; being aware of the very great importance of this truly philosophic vocation; feeling deeply for its present degradation, and having myself projected a periodical work for the same end, I cannot help entering, *totis viribus*, into your views, with, probably, as great a desire for your success, as you yourselves feel. It is now six years, since I have been engaged in other professions, but time which generally wears away our first impressions has only confirmed me in my desires for the welfare of the youth of this country, and seems to have added strength to my opinion of the *necessity and utility* of such a publication as you have commenced. Without further preamble,

I shall lay before you a copy of the Prospectus which, six years ago, I drew up, and should have published, but for the commencement of the late war, and my engaging actively in its concerns, in a responsible station.

Please to send me a copy of the *Academician* from the commencement. I approve of your plan, which together with the matter and execution have met the decided approbation of several of our ablest periodicals, and many of our most literary men.

With the best wishes for your success,

I am gentlemen,

yours, &c.

SAMUEL BACON.

A. & J. W. PICKET, ESQRS.

THE ACADEMICAL HERALD AND JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

Devoted to the Institutions of the United States.

Referto ad literas et studia nostra.—*Cicero.*

A friend to learning which is the best safeguard of the rights of man and a terror to despotism in any shape, I propose to attempt the survey of a region, which has been much and promiscuously trodden, but of which no accurate map has ever been drawn, a country known in part to many, but to none wholly. This enterprize has either never been suggested to the Pioneers of literature and science or they have shrunk from it, as from a labour that would waste their strength without the hope of reward; without even *that hope* which has ever promised so much, and performed so little for literary adventurers.

It seems strange, that almost every art, science and profession has its peculiar vehicle of information, while the science of education is without its advocate. Law, medicine and divinity, commerce, agriculture, and even the fashions and follies of the age, have their "*Journals*," while the art of improving the human mind, the source whence all the others derive their consequence, is abandoned to chance or to neglect. Unless the intellectual powers are well cultivated, we cannot expect great success in any literary profession. First render the waters of the fountain pure, and then, with ease, the vivifying streams which flow from it, may be led through all the walks and departments of literature and science. The establishment of an educational Journal, in which proper plans and modes for the treatment and instruction of children may be proposed and elucidated, is perceived at once to be as necessary as it is useful. Education well conducted is the glory of a nation. It is here, it is in this, that are centered all our rational hopes. Every thing depends on what is now going on in *nurseries and schools*. Within them are those, who half a century hence, will hold the destinies of this nation.

The chief objects of the work are :

To contain inquiries into the origin, progressive improvements, and present condition of our universities, colleges, academies, public libraries, and other literary and scientific institutions, together with a view of their internal regulations; number of classes in each college, qualifications for admission in each; routine of studies, and observations on them: censures and punishments, rewards and honours: exhibitions and commencements: expenses of an education at each: their comparative merits: their funds and resources, &c.—Details of this nature, it is believed, will be highly instructive and interesting to parents, preceptors and pupils.

It is confessed that a general diffusion of knowledge is the only safe foundation of liberty and public morals. It is as certain too, that this subject more important in itself than any other, is less attended to than any. This neglect is much to be lamented.—In order to excite attention, treatises ancient and modern on this subject, will be industriously consulted, and the results laid before the public. New systems of education will be examined, and recommended or reprobated according to their respective merits. A suitable plan of a *national education* will be digested, and published as soon as properly matured.

In addition to what has been said, I intend to devote a considerable part of the work, to the transactions of courts of law, and to those of medical and theological societies.

The plan of my work is before the public, and if it meet their approbation, I am convinced, that I shall meet with a due share of patronage.

SAMUEL BACON.

TO READERS.

The present number of the Academician has been delayed much beyond the stipulated time for its publication; and it is feared, that errors may have crept into some of the articles, from the fact, that the Editors have been compelled to entrust its preparation for the press, partly to the hand of a friend, who is but little accustomed to this kind of revision, and who looks for pardon from the patrons of the work, both on the ground of their willingness to excuse inexperience, and their readiness to sympathize with the sorrows of the afflicted. JOHN W. PICKET, one of the Editors, has within the last week been deprived of the dearest of his hopes, by the death of his fourth child, and only son, ALBERT GARNISS PICKET, aged 22 months and 15 days. His disease was so rapid in its progress as to leave his parents no time to collect themselves for the shock which is rendered more severe, by the consideration, that the three last years of their lives, have been counted by similar calamities; they had buried in the same grave three other children who became in succession the victims of

complaints incident to early childhood at nearly the same period of their age; and the one, whose loss they have now to mourn, seemed to have almost passed the perils of infancy, and the apparent vigour of his constitution had beguiled his parents into the hope that he was to supply the necessities of their disappointed affections; but he was attacked with a malady which began and terminated in a single day. Family afflictions are frequent, and perhaps calamities of no kind can be called rare, but, if there be any that claim a tenderer and more peculiar sympathy, they are those of the parents who lament the objects of their hopes, torn from them at an age when no realities can have tamed their expectations, and when the destiny of their offspring is indicated in the visions of parental love. If there be any who have a right to mourn, and to refuse to be comforted, they are parents in such circumstances as these. The suggestion of these facts has been considered necessary to account for the unusual delay attending the publication of the present number, and the writer has only to hope that he will not be thought to have lifted the veil of affliction with too sudden and too rude a hand.

☞ The holders of subscription papers to this work are requested to forward their lists, and whatever information they may have to communicate, to the Editors, as soon as convenient.

ARITHMETIC.

We have seen the elements of this science exhibited in a clear and natural manner for the use of young learners, by an experienced teacher L. PRATT, of Orange county in the state of New-York. This little volume is well calculated for the business of teachers, and is worthy of the attention of parents and instructors; on examination, we believe, it will be found to be an excellent elementary book for the young tyro.

Academic Honors.—At the commencement of Union College in August last, the degree of *Doctor of Divinity* was conferred on the Rev. JOHN McDOWELL,* of Elizabethtown, N. J. and the Rev. ABEL FLINT, of Hartford, Conn. and the degree of *Doctor of Laws* on the Rev. JEREMIAH DAY, President of Yale College, and Dr. DAVID HOSACK, of New-York.

At the commencement of Alleghany College, Meadville, Ohio, the degree of *Doctor of Divinity* was conferred on the Rev. ASA HILLYER, of Orange, N. J. and the Rev. MATTHEW L. R. PERINE, of New-York, and *Degree of Doctor of Laws* on ISAIAH THOMAS, Esq. of Massachusetts, and H. G. SPAFFORD, Esq. of Pennsylvania.

* The same honorary degree was conferred on the Rev. Mr. McDowell in June last, by the University of North Carolina.